

## SYNTHETIC CANNABINOID RECEPTOR AGONISTS AND DEATH CASES A LITERATURE REVIEW

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### ABSTRACT

*Synthetic cannabinoid receptor agonists (SCRAs) have become the largest group of new psychoactive substances monitored by the European Union Early Warning System. Despite the wide diffusion on the market, data regarding effects, toxicities, and mechanisms as well as toxic/lethal doses are still scarce.*

*A comprehensive literature search for articles published up to now was performed in multiple electronic databases. Only cases of death in which toxicological analyses revealed the presence of SCRAs in blood or urine and at least an external examination was performed, including those that occurred in emergency departments, were included. 354 of the 380 studies found were eliminated, while 8 more manuscripts were found through a review of pertinent references cited in the selected papers. A total of 34 publications were considered in the study (8 case series and 26 case reports). Toxicological analyses should be taken with caution because typical toxic ranges for SCRAs have yet to be determined. In death situations involving SCRAs, a complete post-mortem examination is required to determine the involvement of the deceased's substance usage and to determine a likely cause of death.*

*In certain situations, the cause and manner of death remain unknown even after a thorough examination of clinical, circumstantial, toxicological, and autopsic evidence.*

**KEYWORDS:** Forensic Science; Synthetic Cannabinoid Receptor Agonists (SCRAs); Autopsic Evidence, Toxicity & Death

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### INTRODUCTION

SCRAs are various chemical compounds that simulate the properties of delta- 9-THC by adhering to a CB1 and CB2 cannabinoid receptors. When compared to 9-THC, the most of SCRAs now on the trade are full agonists at the CB1 and CB2 receptors, and have higher potency (Atwood et al., 2010). They've experienced rapid growth since their discovery in herbal blends in 2008 (Auwärter et al., 2009)., expanding to 190 different psychoactive compounds identified to the EMCDDA until the end of 2018. Despite this, the total number of compounds appearing on the market annually has been relatively flat over the last decade (EMCDDA., 2018). Originally, it was thought that SCRAs had resemblance in their pharmacological profile to THC and other Phyto cannabinoids, and many SCRA-related compounds have been developed and evaluated in animal or cell models throughout the years (Huffman et al., 1994).The FDA has listed many of these substances as Schedule I medicines based on both in-vitro and in-vivo testing, as well as extensive reporting of potential harm and increased toxicity(Kasper et al., 2019). These substances may induce feelings of nervousness, euphoria, anxiety, confusion, and unconsciousness, while also inducing sleepiness and a loss of consciousness (Hermanns-Clausen et al., 2018).The most frequent adverse reaction to SCRA intake is to have heart problems. An example of tachycardia and bradycardia was

noticed. Gastrointestinal symptoms such as nausea and vomiting are very common. These side effects have been observed in connection with the intake of SCRA: rhabdomyolysis, hyperthermia, hypothermia, convulsions, respiratory depression, and nephro- and hepatotoxicity (Cooper., 2016). SCRA's may bind to the same neurotransmitter receptors as these other neurotransmitters: serotonin (5-HT), opioid, and the adrenergic and cholinergic receptor. These effects are therefore mediated through interfering with these other neurotransmitter pathways (Pertwee et al., 2010). Several instances of intoxication induced by, for example, MDMB-CHMICA and AB-CHMINACA have been documented, this may result in significant symptoms, requiring hospital treatment and a long time to recover (. Additional substances, such as Cumyl-PEGACLONE, were already proposed as "pretty safe" due to the low risk of intoxication despite the quantity of herbs in herbal mixes (25–30% of tested goods) and extensive usage. Furthermore, in the majority of fatality instances, the SCRA's involvement was judged minimal or contributing (Halter et al., 2019).

Even while SCRA's are found across the marketplace, data on their negative consequences, toxicities, and processes, in addition to toxic dosages, is currently lacking, which means they are among the most "unpredictable" categories of medications (Kronstrand et al., 2019). Research pertaining to the time it takes for a drug to be detected in the body and distributed throughout the tissues, as well as post-mortem drug dispersal is just a handful in the literature. Further confounding toxicological results is the paucity of understanding of the pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics of SCRA's. Many variables, such as SCRA's and in conjunction with other medicines, are hard to assess when there is a SCRA-related fatality.

As far as we know, there aren't any previous reviews that detail synthetic cannabis fatalities, including circumstantial evidence, analysis, and complete autopsy results.

The current study's aim is to give an overview of fatalities that have been investigated thoroughly utilizing SCRA's, and not only to provide statistics but also to present information on the use of analytical methods and findings in investigations.

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### **Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria and Literature Search**

Scholarly research was performed in electronic databases in January 2020. (Pubmed, Scopus) for articles published in the last ten years utilizing the keywords from the study "synthetic cannabinoids" and (death). Duplicates were deleted manually. The tests for SCRA and an external examination were needed for every case of death in which they were detected, and thus, only deaths in whom toxicological testing showed at least one SCRA in urine and blood, as well as an exterior examination, were included in the findings. The selected cases were patients who were brought to the ER and subsequently died.

Exclusion criteria included: articles irretrievable due to technical issues (like the full text not being available, for example), off-topic articles (e.g., instances of death where other NPS were detected but no SCRA's were found), studies performed in vitro or in animals, herbal blends analyses, cases where intoxication was not fatal, and books/reviews that did not include unpublished cases of death due to SCRA's.

### **Gathering the Data**

Excel was used to create a computerized database of the chosen articles. The following attributes were found for each included article: researchers, journal, year, number of fatality cases, title, kind of publication, and type of included SCRA.

With the recovered articles, a new database was created, and the following information was extracted for each death case:

- The age and sex of the victim;
- SCRA concentrations in central and peripheral blood, urine, and tissues discovered during toxicological studies;
- Additional chemicals found in the blood;
- Circumstantial evidence, including a history of drug usage and the presence of herbal blends/paraphernalia at the scene,
- Gross and microscopic discoveries after death;
- Death's cause, method, and proposed process;
- Post-mortem interval (PMI)
- The authors' description of the SCRA's function.

### Interpretation and Analysis of Data

The only statistic utilized was a descriptive one. Two unbiased observers awarded a Toxicological Significance Score (TSS) to the implicated SC in each mortality case, using the technique described by Elliott et al (Elliott et al., 2019). When there was no way to come to an agreement, a third party was contacted. This grade was compared to the authors' assessment of the probable involvement in death.

According to Welter-Luedeke and Maurer, information relating to toxicological analytical techniques was also recorded and taken into account when assessing the single instances. (Welter-Luedeke and Maurer., 2019)

## RESULTS

After eliminating duplicates, there were 380 sources found in the literature search. 354 of them were eliminated based on the criteria outlined in "Materials and Methods," while 8 more manuscripts were added based on a review of references mentioned in the chosen publications.

Finally, 74 published instances were represented by 34 papers. Eight of the 34 papers were case series, while the other 26 were case reports, included parts that simply offered additional statistical data on prior reported instances of death.

### Analytical Problems

The sample processing and purification techniques used differed significantly, though solid-phase separation (Gaunitz et al., 2019). and QuEChERS dispersive solid-phase extraction (Hasegawa et al., 2015).. have also been mentioned, the most common extraction method was liquid-liquid extraction. Only in a few instances was the conventional addition technique used for quantification (Yamagishi et al., 2018)... Liquid chromatography quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometry (LC-QToF-MS) was utilised in two instances to identify and quantify parent chemicals and/or metabolites in blood and ante-mortem serum ( Zaitu et al., 2015)..

Overall, 31 SCRA's (EAM-2201, AB-PINACA, 5F-PB-22, 5F-AKB-48, 5F-ADB, AB-CHMINACA, UR-144, XLR-11, JWH-022, MAB-CHMINACA, MDMB-CHMICA, 5F-AMB, Mepirapim, JWH-018, AM-2201, JWH-210,

JWH-122, JWH-250, JWH-175, ADB-FUBINACA, AB-FUBINACA, 5F-APINACA, MAM-2201, STS135, THJ 2201, AM-1220, AM-2232, PB-22, NNEI, AM-604, and JWH-073) were detected, some being more frequently identified in the revised cases, such as 5F-ADB, XLR-11, AM-2201, AB-CHMINACA, and JWH-018.

5F-PB-22 and UR-144 were also prevalent, although at lesser rates. The XLR-11 was mainly revealed in 2016, whereas the 5F-ADB peaked in 2017 and 2018. Though, a definite pattern cannot be deduced just from these data.

Although some laboratories fulfilled domestic or international certification guidelines, as an example, established by the GTFCh, “in house” techniques were also used, with generally positive findings (Gieronand Adamowicz., 2016). Analytical details were not consistently provided, and not all of the previously stated factors, particularly matrix-effects, were thoroughly evaluated (Yamagishi et al., 2018).

Previous incidents reported examples, SCRA concentrations in post-mortem cases ranged from 0.01 (Labay et al., 2016) to 199 ng/mL (Shanks et al., 2012), with lower values, 0.5 to 2.5 ng/mL, being the most often observed.

In 53 of the 74 instances, peripheral blood was examined (72 %). Only cardiac blood concentrations were reported in 8 instances (11%), In ten instances, both peripheral and central data were reported (14 %). Other biological matrices, apart from urine, were quantitatively evaluated only in eight instances (11%). Other drugs were discovered in 44 of the 74 instances (59 %).

In terms of additional xenobiotics identified, ethanol was found in 13 instances (17 %), but levels of 1.5 g/L were only observed in 6 cases. In 11 instances (15 %), NPS was consumed in the form of synthetic cathinones, hallucinogens, anaesthetics (diphenidine), and synthetic opioids. The following were some of the most often detected substances of abuse antidepressive 12 cases (16.2%), cannabinoids 10 cases (13%), amphetamines, benzodiazepines both 6 cases (8%) and opioids 5 cases (7%).

## CASE REPORTS

The dead varied in age from 14 to 61 years (Yamagishi et al., 2018). The average age was 32, with a median of 29. 38.5 % were between the ages of 20 and 29. Teenagers were highly represented as well. (15.4%). In terms of gender, 88.1 % of the victims were male and 11.9 % were female. A history of drug and/or alcohol use was documented in 18 out of 74 patients (24%) whereas poor mental health was indicated in just 5 instances (7 %).

Herbal mixes, smoke devices (e.g., pipes), and other paraphernalia were discovered throughout the death scene enquiry (DSI) in 30 of 74 instances (41%) and were labelled in a variety of ways “Aladdin platinum/limited,” “Herbal incense, the super lemon,” “F1,” “Hammer Head,” “Magic Gold,” “Desert Premium Potpourri,” “AL 37,” “AP 31,” “Strongman,” “GM sapphire,” “Heart Shot Black,” “Apollo,” “Mocarz,” “Smoke XXX. A potent potpourri,” “Mad Hatter Incense,” “Fairy evolution,” “Mary Joy Annihilation,” “Passionflower Herb – Zonk,” “Stoner Pot-Pourri K11,” “Supanova Pot-Pourri,” “K2 Cherry,” “Space Cade Flight Risk,” “Game over,” “Orange Flame,” “Legal Phunk,” “Mojo.” In 15 cases, medical evidence was given (20%), with the majority of them involving the identification of cardiac arrest/asystolia/fibrillation upon admission at an Emergency Department.

Post-mortem inspection results, including gross or macroscopical findings, were accessible in 55 instances (74 %), even those with just a brief reference to “unremarkable findings.” The post-mortem examination in the majority of instances where a SC was subsequently found through toxicological investigation showed only intoxication symptoms that

aren't specific, such as pulmonary edoema and congestion, cerebral edoema, hemolysis, and evidence of aspiration (Shanks et al., 2015).. Stomach and gastroduodenal erosions (Langford and Bolton 2018), frequent hypostasis with petechiae (Labay et al., 2016), and intracutaneous skin bleedings (vibices) (Hasegawa et al., 2015b).were observed in certain instances. Finally, cardiac anomalies like as cardiac hypertrophy (Labay et al., 2016), dilatative or hyperactive cardiomyopathy should be taken into consideration (Paul et al., 2018), atherosclerosis-related stenosis (Angerer et al., 2017), or acute coronary artery thrombosis were seen (Shanks and Behonick.,2016).

Only 13 instances had histological data that was clearly characterized as a consequence of a microscopical examination (18 %).

Except for four instances, the cause of death was mentioned (5 %). Cardio-circulatory and cardiac arrhythmias acute effects were indicated as the cause of death or as underlying processes in 17 instances (23 %) of mono and poly-drug intoxications involving adolescents and adults (Langford and Bolton 2018). A number of deaths have been linked to enthusiastic delirium and police restraints (Labay et al., 2016), as well as falls from great heights, either as a result of drug-induced psychosis or as a result of decreased awareness with unintentional falling (Gaunitz et al., 2019). Suicide (Rojek et al., 2017), self-inflicted self-injuries (Patton et al., 2013). and increased drug use may all result from behavioural consequences (Rojek et al., 2017). Respiratory depression (Angerer et al., 2017), particularly in the context of mixed xenobiotic consumption (Labay et al., 2016), and asphyxia owing to aspiration of stomach material in a coma (Angerer et al., 2017) were also reported.

The cause of death was mainly accidental or unknown, while four instances of suicide (5 %) were identified. The PMI was specified in 11 instances (15%) and varied from 8 hours to 4 days

## DISCUSSIONS

The comprehensive analysis of the research revealed an unusually a large number of SCRA-related deaths. However, given the drugs' widespread usage, comparable deaths may be under-reported or under-recognized due to the difficulties of post-mortem studies. Indeed, the delay in establishing and updating analytical methods impairs many labs' capacity to identify and report instances of SCRA-related mortality, especially when new drugs that have just reached the market are implicated (Trecki et al., 2015).. As a consequence, the findings provided here cannot be used to determine the prevalence.

### Circumstantial Data

A prior record of narcotic use, witnesses' reports of celebrating or smoking just before the fall, or the DSI, which revealed paraphernalia and herbal residues, all pointed to SCRA participation in almost all cases. The composition of such bundles changed throughout time, depending on market availability (Gieron and Adamowicz., 2016). As a result, it is important to remember that product names do not accurately anticipate the consumed chemicals.

Despite the fact that e-cigarettes and e-liquids are a new and a lovely way to utilize SCRA (Angerer et al., 2019).. In the empirical records of the mortality instances examined, no nicotine substances were discovered. Authorities may be less aware of the connection between both e-cigarettes and SCRA use, leading to such goods not being shut down or fully examined. When such an apparatus is discovered, a DSI study of vaping liquids should be highly recommended.

SCRAs are not detected by standard immunoassays due to analytical limitations and cost concerns, necessitating an examination of the target, this is typically the case desired by officials and when suspicion is raised, an investigation is launched (Paul et al., 2018). This aspect may lead to a failure to identify such instances and, as a result, a significant

underestimate of the number of SCRA-related mortality cases. This highlights the need for having appropriate information as well as significant experience in toxicity testing throughout DSI and while interrogating witnesses.

### Analytical Issues

Despite the lack of a single preferred method for sample extraction due to the variety of synthetic variations among analytes, information retrieved from a literature review on toxicological assessments highlight the role of LC-MS/MS for the measurement of SCRA in biological samples (Kronstrand et al., 2013). The application of conventional techniques of adding, as previously recommended in a sequence of intoxications (Giorgetti et al., 2019), is limited, perhaps due to a paucity of blood taken after a death obtained during the autopsy.

In contrast to the number of categories of NPS compounds, the literature search produced a small number of SCRA. We do not believe this is related to a preference for contemporary compounds since the period of follow-up concluded in 2019 and the last few components, such as SCRA with a -carbolinone core, were not identified. This finding may be due to problems in identifying SCRA in the absence of a specialized and up-to-date technique. The primary analytical difficulty in forensic toxicology is certainly keeping techniques up to date to identify innovations as soon as they are linked to homicides. Although there has been a reduction in recent years, the frequent appearance of new compounds may result in the absence of analytes that are relevant. This was plainly shown by instances in which re-analysis of materials using new and more sensitive techniques allowed for the detection of earlier undiscovered compounds (Yamagishi et al., 2018). Given the low amounts described in the literature (Kronstrand et al., 2013) very sensitive techniques are required in blood, and urine analysis may show a prior consumption even when nothing is found in blood (Hasegawa et al., 2018)

Even in published statistics, once a new method for analyzing biological material has been established, a procedure known as "quick validation", which covers accuracy, categorization, matrix effect, linearity, and precision, is highly recommended, even though it is not always done or reported (Peters et al., 2007). Langford et al. present a situation in which, the examinations, for instance, were carried out by a privately licensed forensics lab, and no details were given due to alleged "competition and market issues" (Langford and Bolton., 2018). Lack of a plainly defined method and authentication procedure calls into question the trustworthiness of the analytical findings and restricts data comparability. A lack of re-analysis material and/or isotopically labelled standards may further impede validation (Labay et al., 2016). Shortage of specimen is a major restriction, particularly when measured concentrations are much outside the calibration's linear range, even if findings may be estimated through extrapolation (Angerer et al., 2017). It is worth noting that the overwhelming majority of SCRA measuring methods were validated in serum rather than post-mortem blood.

Several factors must be addressed while assessing concentrations, including sample location, medical examination interval, the user's tolerance, strength of substance, other medications used together, chemical features, and temporal delay between the time of ingestion and the time of death.

Some substances, such as 5F-ADB, are recognized to be very shaky (Hasegawa et al., 2015) and this may reflect why the highly efficient SCRA identified in our research were detected in such low concentrations (Angerer et al., 2017). Rapid deterioration due to post-mortem redistribution, pyrolysis, degradation, and ante-mortem drug metabolism, were identified as additional major reasons for decreased densities and should be taken into account for all SCRA, albeit with various weightings (Yamagishi et al., 2018). Despite its great potency, mean concentrations of AB-CHMINACA were

comparatively higher when compared to other SCRA (Angerer et al., 2017). This may be due to the short time span between drug use and mortality, as reported by Paul et al. (Paul et al., 2018), or to the subject's strong tolerance, suggesting large dosages (Paul et al., 2018).

The variations in PMR levels across cerebral blood were usually modest (Yamagishi et al., 2018). (PMI time: 2 days) In the case of MDMB-CHMICA, a 1.2 quotient of central blood (C/P ratio) was found 12 hours after death, and this result was considered as not indicative of PMR (Gaunitz et al., 2019). Similarly, in a case reported by Yamagishi et al., concentrations were in the same range in all organs (Yamagishi et al., 2018). In the instance of Zaitsev et al. for MAM-2201, AM-1220, and AM-2232 (PMI: 20 h), left and right ventricular blood levels were 2 to 5 and 1.5 to 2 times greater than femoral blood concentrations, respectively (Zaitsev et al., 2015). The measurement method used LC-QTOF, no thorough verification was done, and several analyte proportions were considerably beyond the maximum standardization point. Nonetheless, C/P ratios seem to trend to values greater than one, particularly when the time gap between tobacco usage and death is short (in this case 1.5 h). A death shortly after tobacco usage, with high levels of SCRA in the respiratory system being discharged into the surrounding arteries and cells, may describe the higher levels in the left ventricle's blood (Moriya and Hashimoto., 1999)., but the writers proposed a myocardial buildup instead ( Zaitsev et al., 2015). Hasegawa et al. observed C/P ratios ranging from 1.54 to 1.75. (PMI time: 2 days). (Hasegawa et al., 2015)

Divergences among substances indicate that when hypothesizing PMR, the chemical properties, as well as the outline of usage, should be addressed (Sasaki et al., 2013). Cigarettes and drinking alcohol are likely to result in greater amounts of problems respectively, in the guts and chest. This may result in a leak into adjacent central compartment vessels. Because femoral blood levels rise primarily as a result of discharge from adipose cells and muscular tissues, If the center ratio were inversed, it would mean that the chemical is more lipophilic and/or that SCRA accumulate chronically in sections that are deep. Though, the lack of evidence on the period among final intake and demise, in addition to the PMI, confuses matters. Matrix effects and stability further restrict the capacity to derive meaningful inferences from blood concentrations.

SCRA distribution in tissues differed greatly. Concentrations in tissues have only been measured in a small number of instances, and the findings may be heavily influenced by the techniques of examination used, this is out beyond the range of this article's explanation. Given how uncommon this kind of assessment is, which allows for a time-consuming conventional calculation technique (Yamagishi et al., 2018). the present tissue dispersion statistics somehow doesn't allow these broad generalizations. They may, however, be utilized to assess the particular situation and may help identify possible areas of buildup. For example, very high levels of MAM-2201 in adipose tissue were observed, resulting in the recommendation of tissue made up of fat as a potential goal material for investigation (PMI: four days) (Saito et al., 2013). NNEI (Sasaki et al., 2013). (PMI 3 days) had high adipose levels, which may be interpreted as a consequence of ongoing drug use. Adipose tissues, in accordance with Kusano et al. (Kusano et al., 2018)., provide an excellent matrix for locating the parent chemical, while other tissues may have larger quantities of enzymes.

Thick amounts in digestive system and renal cells were observed in the event that there are more hydrophilic chemicals (Hasegawa et al., 2015)., particularly when there was a short interval between intake and death. In some instances, fatty tissue buildup may not have happened yet, necessitating further time (Hasegawa et al., 2015). MDMB-CHMICA Gaunitz et al. described a case with elevated brain concentrations. (PMI: 12 h), proving that the subject was in the effect of cannabinoids when he died(Gaunitz et al., 2019). There were also high levels in the lungs, indicating that the

substance was ingested via tobacco consumption.

In conclusion, concentrations in the blood and tissues must be analyzed with care owing to the many variables that must be considered (Angerer et al., 2016)

### **Histopathology**

The specificity of gross pathology symptoms increases the likelihood of SCRA-related missing fatalities. In otherwise healthy and young individuals, vomiting and aspiration of stomach contents are strongly indicative of coma or fainting brought on by drugs (Hasegawa et al., 2015). This was also observed in a case where only urine was first determined to be positive for SCRA, but subsequent tests revealed MAB-CHMINACA levels in the blood are very high (Hasegawa et al., 2018). It's important to note that severe gastrointestinal bleeding may be caused by a wide range of diseases and conditions, prior to connecting such outcomes to SCRA intake, such as Mallory-Weiss syndrome or hypothermia, and that a proper alternative diagnosis is needed. Unsafe environment seen by Langford and Bolton for example may have been induced by ethanol intake that was under his fatal limits (3.11 g/L). (Langford and Bolton., 2018).

Blood loss and an abundance of epistaxis may indicate a recent SCRA consumption. The CDC published a safety alert in 2018 after deadly and life-threatening bleedings were linked to super warfarin-type medicines such as brodifacoum added to goods purportedly containing SCRA. LAARs were sometimes discovered in herbal blends as additives (Arepally et al., 2019). In the research, there is an instance of anticoagulant-related death. (Kelkar et al., 2018)., Despite the fact that the case was excluded from the assessment because the prior usage of SCRA was based only on speculation. It is unclear if such adulterants may induce hemolysis, profuse hypostasis, and intracutaneous or soft tissue bleedings, or whether they reflect a hematological consequence, perhaps liver-mediated, of SCRA themselves (Behonick et al., 2014). Because LAARs are often undetectable in urine screening tests, extremely sensitive LC-MS/MS techniques are needed for their identification (Arepally et al., 2019).

The next paragraph discusses how to evaluate cardio-vascular test findings.

### **Death's Causes and Mechanisms**

Although scientific data is currently sparse, many preclinical investigations and case studies have discussed the elevated hazard associated with SCRA usage (Hermanns-Clausen et al., 2018). Our literature research reflected this, when abnormal cardiac findings were discovered and death from sudden circulatory arrest or collapse was confirmed. Though, it is possible that these fatalities are unrelated to SCRA (Hoyte et al., 2012). Marijuana has a number of cardiovascular effects, including increased catecholamine release and, as a result, increased cardiac rate and hypertension, as well as low blood pressure (Pacher et al., 2018). Cannabis is said to have either minimal or increased blood pressure effects, and may raise the myocardial infarction risk, especially in susceptible individuals (Pacher et al., 2018). SCRA have been linked to myocardial infarction (Tse et al., 2014) perhaps in the lack of cardiovascular disease, as well as arrhythmia-related sudden death (Ibrahim et al., 2014). In a 20-year-old patient, Sasaki et al. (Sasaki et al., 2013). found signs of high blood pressure and ageing, along with ache in the heart, and postulated hyperactivity of the heart and circulatory system as a result of chronic SCRA usage. Band necrosis may cause cardiac damage in certain cases, which might be explained by a number of injury processes (Sasaki et al., 2013)., but not in others, where neither macroscopic nor microscopic indications were seen (Paul et al., 2018).

When post-mortem testing revealed no signs of cardiac disease, the victim's death was attributed to the SCRA



based on hearsay, such as the patient describing smoking just before dying or a fast weakening after smoking (Langford and Bolton 2018). A blood sample taken just 2 hours after a rapid breakdown with asystole revealed 1.4 ng/mL of MDMB-CHMICA in a similar instance, confirming the potential involvement of SCRA (Westin et al., 2016).

Furthermore, asystole was first seen in a mortality case where, following resuscitation, the patient developed multi-organ disease, which ultimately led to heart failure (Adamowicz.,2016).

Cardiomegaly and dilatative cardiomyopathy are examples of atherosclerotic disease and other cardiac abnormalities, complicate determining the involvement of SCRA in mortality situations (Usui et al., 2018). Indeed, medications may either aggravate a pre-existing illness or be regarded as an unimportant result (Labay et al., 2016). Tse et al. for example described a case where a quintuple artery thrombosis was found and death was attributed to myocardial injury, with SCRA perhaps having a role, despite the lack of scientific proof (Tse et al., 2014). Shanks et al. concluded in a case using ADB-FUBINACA that, Despite the presence of a possible fatal hemostatic blockage, a SCRA-induced dysrhythmia led to mortality due to the development of behavioral consequences followed by a fast death (Shanks et al., 2016). Tse et al. indicated a contributing function as well, despite morphological results that might have explained the death on their own (Tse et al., 2014). These examples show how difficult it may be to evaluate the SCRA's impact on the heart, especially in the context of symptoms that might be considered a self-inflicted reason for death. In this kind of case, a TSS of "1," that hardly rules out a fractional involvement, seems to be sufficient.(Elliott et al., 2019).

When it comes to polydrug addiction, xenobiotic concentrations must be considered, resulting in the assignment of on a specific instance basis, various TSS, for example, TSS U (3 g/L ethanol, significant undefined SCRA, and probable arrhythmias) versus TSS 3 (1.8 g/L ethanol, 1.5 ng/mL AB-CHMINACA, and severe cardiorespiratory anxiety) (Langford and Bolton.,2018).

Coma may result in death either directly (White., 2017) Kronstrand et al. reported a case in which mortality occurred as a result of "hypothermia and SCRA use," Despite the absence of traditional pneumonia signs like cold and Wischnewsky spots (Kronstrand et al., 2013). Hypothermia during SCRA usage was seen in animal studies (Schindler et al., 2017), and has been related to cannabis' impacts on dopamine receptors (Nava et al., 2000), although this has yet to be confirmed in humans. Despite the patient being at the apartment and the observation taken just thirty minutes after the abrupt breakdown, a tissue temperature of 35.1°C was observed in a case reported by Adamowicz.(Adamowicz., 2016). This result is consistent with animal experimental evidence on the impact of SCRA on the temperature of the body and emphasizes the need of evaluating temperatures of the body and the environment in instances of mortality potentially linked to such chemicals. Even if an AB-CHMINACA-induced hyperglycemia was also conceivable, a "intoxicated-state" was furthermore regarded as the fundamental principal cause of fatalitybecause of ketoacidosis (Hess et al., 2015)

A further area of worry seems to be SCRA's behavioural contribution to mortality. The affinity of SCRA for serotonergic, dopaminergic (D2), or glutamatergic (NMDA) receptors may potentially explain anxiety and psychosis (Castaneto et al., 2014). A person jumped from a high place after feeling ill and purging many times, according to Labay et al. (Labay et al., 2016), and was found to be intoxicated with MDEA, JWH-175, and MDA. While the mental effects of SCRA use are apparent if no other medicines are available (Patton et al., 2013)., the function in intake of several drugs is perplexing, Low dosages of both phenytoin and SCRA, as in the situation, both of which may produce psychosis (Rodriguez and McMahon., 2014). Statistics on toxic levels for NPS may be lacking (Rojek et al., 2017) and even therapeutic or insignificant amounts of commonly abused substances may be relevant in conjunction with SCRA. SCRA's

impact on non-cannabinoid sensors, as well as dopamine, serotonin, and catecholamine levels, further complicates interpretations. Although no direct causation can be proven in such instances of polydrug usage, it is conceivable that the fatality would not have happened if SCRA intake had not occurred. Due to the presence of numerous medications with unclear contributing roles, a TSS of "1" (denoting the indirect involvement) is recommended, despite behavioral toxicity being a significant risk factor for catastrophic results (Labay et al., 2016).

In the first case reported by Rojek et al. the victim leapt from a building following a claimed "loss of control," and no other substance was found. As a result, notwithstanding the behavioral toxicity and the indirect route, a contribution to death is expected (TSS of "3") (Rojek et al., 2017).

Ultimately, there have been reports of instances of severe renal failure (Trecki et al., 2015).

In general, including just toxicological findings in the lack of macro- and microscopical information increases ambiguities about the function of the drug, as observed by Kusano et al. (Kusano et al., 2018). Despite the fact that we have a larger data collection (Behonick et al., 2014), the mechanism of death may remain unknown, and agreement amongst separate reviewers evaluating the parts of the same evidence may be poor (Labay et al., 2016). As a result, for each instance, a multidisciplinary assessment should be suggested in order to potentially minimize such uncertainty.

Even when there is a scarcity of information explicitly highlighting a narcotics-related mortality, the majority of the articles indicated a potential contributing role for SCRA (Gerostamoulos et al., 2015)

In the present study, a TSS of 3 was assigned if no competing reason was identified and the proposed process of fatality was continuous with the most frequently reported SCRA toxicities. New chemicals' affinity and activity are frequently unclear, and surprisingly severe consequences may emerge (Yamagishi et al., 2018). Because of the uncertainty around hazardous levels and consequences, even when there is no documented source of death and other substances may have had a role, the potential of SCRA involvement should not be dismissed, and a TSS of "2" should be justified.

When several substances with potentially synergistic effects are identified, despite modest quantities of each single drug, the probability of a high significance score increases (Yamagishi et al., 2018).

SCRAs, on the other hand, may exacerbate an intoxication induced by alcohol or other substances, a TSS of "1" is recommended in situations with SCRA amounts that are quite low or competing drug concentrations over the lethal threshold. This does not necessarily imply that the SCRA had no detrimental impact, and the component of curiosity's durability should also be recognized as a potential cause of low ratios.

TSS was given a rating "U" in cases where there was a lack of data, such as Langford and Bolton (Langford and Bolton, 2018) reported a situation in which significant alcohol quantities were recovered but no SCRA measurement was available, or in the instances of Minakata et al. (Minakata et al., 2018) and Kusano et al. when the impacts of either of the drug identified were challenging to determine. (Kusano et al., 2018).

## Limitations

This research has a number of drawbacks. To begin with, despite significant studies incorporating numerous databases, the process of deducing empirical proof is severely constrained by the potential of inadequately comparable instances and the need of setting a time bound for the evaluation. As a result, the information provided must be considered partial. Second, no consideration was given to the content of the articles selected. A third major restriction is determining the TSS

(Kronstrand et al., 2018).of the chosen instances, because the TSS is a non-validated scale at the moment. Nonetheless, considering the lack of standards for establishing whether or not a substance(s) had a role in a death, the TSS seemed to be a versatile and simple instrument for assigning a contributing weight to SCRA's and therefore evaluating and comparing various instances. To prevent misunderstandings and to comprehend the writers' points of view, the function of the drug in each death instance was also provided as said by them. Finally, only fatalities with at least one SCRA that had been analytically confirmed and a probable autopsy were considered. The authors are aware that this may have resulted in some information being lost, but our goal was to potentially attain a greater degree of proof.

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